

1 **Effects of a Six-Day, Whole-Diet Sweet Taste Intervention on Pleasantness, Desire for,**
2 **and Intakes of Sweet Foods: A Randomised Controlled Trial**

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11

12 **Short title:** Six-day whole-diet sweet taste intervention

13

14 **Keywords:** Sweet foods; sugars; preferences; food intake; taste perception

15

16 **Abbreviations:** ANOVA: Analysis of Variance; SD: standard deviation; SE: standard error;
17 TEI: total energy intake; UK: United Kingdom; VAS: visual analogue scales; WHO: World
18 Health Organisation

19

20 **Abstract**

21 Reduced exposure to sweet taste has been proposed to reduce sweet food preferences and
22 intakes, but the evidence to support these associations is limited. This randomised controlled
23 trial investigated the effects of a whole-diet sweet taste intervention for 6 days, on
24 subsequent pleasantness, desire for, and sweet food intakes. Participants (n 104) were
25 randomised to increase (n 40), decrease (n 43), or make no change to (n 21) their
26 consumption of sweet-tasting foods and beverages for six consecutive days. Pleasantness,
27 desire to eat, sweet taste intensity and sweet food intakes were assessed on days 0 and 7.
28 One-hundred-and-two (98%) participants completed the study, and self-reported adherence
29 with the dietary interventions was moderate-good ($M=66-72/100\text{mm}$), with instructions to
30 decrease sweet food consumption reported as more difficult than the other diets (smallest
31 ($t(81)=2.45$, $p=.02$, $M_{\text{diff}}=14/100\text{mm}$, $SE=2\text{mm}$). In intention-to-treat analyses, participants in
32 the decrease sweet food consumption group reported higher sweet taste intensity
33 perceptions at day 7 compared to day 0 ($F(2,101)=4.10$, $p=.02$, $M_{\text{diff}}=6/100\text{mm}$, $SE=2\text{mm}$).
34 No effects were found for pleasantness ($F(2,101)=2.04$, $p=.14$), desire to eat ($F(2,101)=1.49$,
35 $p=.23$) or any of the measures of sweet food intake (largest $F(2,101)=2.53$, $p=.09$). These
36 results were confirmed in regression analyses which took self-reported adherence to the
37 diets into account. Our findings suggest that exposure to sweet taste does not affect
38 pleasantness, desire for, or intakes of, sweet-tasting foods and beverages. Public health
39 recommendations to limit the consumption of sweet-tasting foods and beverages to reduce
40 sweet food preferences may require revision.

41 Trial registration: ClinicalTrials.gov NCT05672017, registration: 05.01.23.

42

43 Introduction

44 A high consumption of free sugars is associated with dental caries, cardiovascular disease,
45 and higher energy intake leading to an increased risk of overweight and obesity^(1,2). As a
46 result, the World Health Organisation (WHO) currently recommends a global reduction in
47 intakes of free sugars, suggesting these should constitute no more than 10% of total energy
48 intake (TEI)⁽²⁾, which, based on a 2000-calorie diet, equates to approximately twelve
49 teaspoons of sugars per day. A further reduction to 5% TEI is advised for optimal health
50 benefits⁽²⁾. Despite these guidelines, in numerous countries, sugar consumption continues to
51 surpass recommended thresholds⁽³⁾.

52 To assist with the reduction of dietary free sugars, some public health organisations⁽⁴⁻⁶⁾
53 advise limiting the consumption of all sweet-tasting foods and beverages, regardless of
54 whether the sweet taste originates from free sugars, low/no calorie sweeteners, or occurs
55 naturally in foods, such as fruit. The rationale is that regular exposure to sweet-tasting foods
56 and beverages increases sweet taste preferences, thereby increasing the consumption of
57 foods and beverages which contain free sugars. It is therefore proposed that limiting
58 exposure to the experience of sweet taste will reduce sweet taste preferences, leading to
59 reduced sweet food and beverage consumption and consequently lower free sugar intakes⁽⁴⁻
60 ⁶⁾. Although this idea may appear logical, based on research on dietary exposure⁽⁷⁾, limited
61 research has been conducted to examine the effects of repeated dietary sweet taste
62 exposure on subsequent generalized preferences and intakes of sweet foods and
63 beverages.

64 Furthermore, this research lacks consensus. A recent systematic review suggests that clear
65 conclusions regarding the existence or direction of effects of modifying dietary sweet taste
66 exposure cannot be made due to the limited and heterogeneous evidence base⁽⁸⁾. The
67 majority of available studies also focus on testing the effects of repeated exposure to either a
68 single sweet-tasting food item, such as a sweet beverage⁽⁹⁻¹¹⁾ or sweet snack⁽¹²⁾, or a single
69 aspect of the diet, such as breakfast^(13,14). Although these studies provide some evidence to
70 test the rationale behind the recommendations to reduce sweet food and beverage
71 consumption, the observed effects are potentially confounded by eating behaviours outside
72 of the intervention protocols. To date, only one study of which we are aware has accounted
73 for all eating behaviours by assessing the effects of exposure to an entirely sweet-tasting or
74 an entirely non-sweet-tasting diet for 24 hours⁽¹⁵⁾. The findings from this study, by Griffioen-
75 Roose et al.⁽¹⁵⁾ contradict the predictions made above. They demonstrate that a 24-hour
76 exposure to a predominantly sweet-tasting diet led to *reduced* rather than increased
77 preferences and intakes of sweet-tasting foods and beverages at an ad-libitum buffet⁽¹⁵⁾. A
78 further study of interest is that by Wise et al.⁽¹⁶⁾. Participants in this study were asked to
79 replace 40% of energy from simple sugars with energy from fats, proteins, and complex
80 carbohydrates without consuming low-calorie sweeteners, which, while unmeasured,
81 presumably also reduced the sweet taste of the whole diet. This study found no changes in
82 sweet food preferences following exposure for 3 months. The taste profile of the diet,
83 however, was not explicitly adjusted or monitored.

84 Extending this previous research, the present study aimed to assess the effects of a whole-
85 diet, sweet taste intervention for six days. Participants were asked to increase, decrease or
86 make no change to their sweet food and beverage consumption for six days. Our outcome

87 measures were pleasantness, desire to eat and sweet taste intensity, for sweet and non-
88 sweet foods, and sweet food and beverage intake. The study was explicitly about the effects
89 of the taste of the diet, rather than the sugar content. We hypothesised that there would be
90 changes in all outcomes over time in intervention groups, and no changes in a usual diet
91 control group. No predictions were made regarding the direction of effects.

92

93 **Methods**

94 ***Design***

95 This study utilized a parallel-groups, randomised controlled trial design with three arms.
96 Participants were randomized to either increase, decrease or make no change to their daily
97 intake of sweet-tasting foods and beverages for six consecutive days. All outcomes were
98 assessed at two time points, on day 0 (baseline) and day 7 (end), alongside measures of
99 adherence to the assigned diet.

100

101 ***Participants***

102 A-priori power calculations were based on changes in pleasantness ratings of approx. 6-9
103 mm (SD = approx. 13-17mm), as reported in response to sweet taste exposure over 6 days
104 in two previous studies^(12,17). For a two-sided alpha of 0.05 and power of 0.8, these
105 calculations estimated the need for 40 participants per intervention group. Eligibility criteria
106 for the study were: being over the age of 18 years, non-vegan and non-smoker, regularly
107 consuming breakfast, having no food allergies, not pregnant or breastfeeding, not dieting or
108 trying to lose weight, and being willing and able to undertake all study requirements.
109 Participants were recruited using personal contacts, posters and online advertisements, and
110 through internal research volunteering platforms. To conceal our specific interest in sweet
111 foods, the trial was described as a study of "*Eating Behaviours*" with candidates advised that
112 they would be required to modify specific aspects of their diet as instructed, although details
113 of the modification were not given at this stage. In advance of participation, all interested
114 candidates received study information and consent documents, and all participants provided
115 written informed consent.

116 The trial was designed and conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the
117 Declaration of Helsinki (1983), the Ethical Guidelines of the British Psychological Society
118 and the Research Ethics Codes of Practice of Bournemouth University, UK and the
119 University of Bristol, UK. All procedures involving human participants were approved by the
120 Research Ethics Committees of Bournemouth University (IDs: 47051/48807/45568) and the
121 University of Bristol (ID: 06121760961) prior to commencement. Risk assessments were
122 carried out before data collection, with regular reviews undertaken throughout the trial and all
123 risks addressed accordingly. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

124

125 ***Intervention/Control***

126 Participants were allocated to one of three trial arms: 'increase sweet food consumption',
127 'decrease sweet food consumption', and 'no diet change' (control). In the 'increase sweet
128 food consumption' arm, participants were instructed to increase their consumption of sweet
129 foods and beverages with the instruction "*Please increase your consumption of all sweet*

130 *foods and drinks*". Participants were given examples of foods and beverages, taken from the
131 Sensory-Diet database⁽¹⁸⁾, that would be suitable to consume at different meals, to include
132 fruit, some sweet vegetables, e.g. tomatoes, sweetcorn, carrots, low calorie-sweetened
133 foods and beverages, and some sugar-sweetened foods and beverages. In the 'decrease
134 sweet food consumption' arm, participants were instructed to decrease their consumption of
135 sweet foods and beverages with the instruction "*Please reduce your consumption of all*
136 *sweet foods and drinks*", and were given examples of non-sweet foods and beverages that
137 would be suitable to consume at different meals, as above. Importantly, the foods highlighted
138 to participants in these two groups were given only as examples. In addition, each
139 participant was encouraged to judge for themselves which foods would be appropriate for
140 them to consume to adjust the taste of their diet as requested. The purpose of this procedure
141 was to ensure that the intervention was experienced by each participant as intended (i.e., as
142 sweet or not sweet). This avoided imposing the researchers' assumptions about the foods
143 that are experienced as tasting sweet versus not sweet by each individual. For those in the
144 control arm, no dietary change was required. Participants were simply asked to "*Continue*
145 *consuming all foods and drinks that you were consuming last week*". Intervention instruction
146 guides were provided to participants in written form for them to take away and refer to as
147 they wished. In addition, on receipt of their instructions, participants were reminded that the
148 aim of the study (as disclosed during consent procedures) was to investigate the effects of a
149 dietary change and were asked to make this change as substantial as possible to enhance
150 our chances of finding effects. The researcher in contact with participants was not aware of
151 the specific instructions given, but contact details of an additional researcher were also given
152 should questions arise during the course of the study. The instruction guides for the three
153 conditions are given in the Supplementary Materials. Participants were asked to undertake
154 the intervention for six days (days 1 - 6) with outcomes assessed on day 0 and day 7.

155

156 **Outcomes**

157 Our primary outcomes were pleasantness and desire to eat for sweet and non-sweet foods,
158 and sweet food intake assessed at an ad-libitum cold, buffet-style, breakfast meal.

159 Secondary outcomes were perceived sweet taste intensity of the sweet and non-sweet
160 foods, self-reported adherence to the allocated diet, and measures of appetite.

161 *Pleasantness and desire to eat*

162 Pleasantness and desire to eat sweet and non-sweet foods were assessed on each test day
163 using a taste perception test. Participants were instructed to taste and consume bite-sized
164 portions of six different foods (see Table 1), comprised of both sweet and non-sweet items of
165 a range of textures. Amounts provided are given in the Supplementary Materials (Table
166 SM1). For the one bite of each food, participants were asked to rate pleasantness and desire
167 to eat on 100 mm visual analogue scales (VAS) using paper and pen. The instructions for
168 these scales were: '*How PLEASANT does this food taste to you right now?*' (response
169 anchors: '*not at all pleasant*', '*extremely pleasant*') and '*Now, rate how strong your DESIRE*
170 *TO EAT more of this food is right now?*' (response anchors: '*not at all strong*', '*extremely*
171 *strong*')⁽¹⁹⁾. The foods were tasted in a pre-specified order, and participants were required to
172 take a sip of water in between each food item to limit the mixing of flavours. The bite-sized
173 portions were consumed in full to avoid differential impacts on subsequent test meal intake
174 measures. Food order varied between participants in a counterbalanced manner, but it
175 remained the same on day 0 and day 7 for each individual.

176

177 Table 1 about here

178

179 *Sweet food intake*

180 Sweet food intake was assessed using an ad-libitum cold buffet-style breakfast⁽²⁰⁾.
181 Participants were presented with a variety of sweet and non-sweet foods and invited to
182 consume as much or as little as they desired. The foods served, including their taste profiles
183 and texture, are listed in Table 1, with amounts provided given in the Supplementary
184 Materials (Table SM2). All foods are commonly consumed in the UK and have been used in
185 a previous study to illustrate changes in intake over time⁽¹³⁾. For each participant, foods were
186 individually weighed before and after breakfast to allow calculations of the percentage weight
187 consumed from sweet foods and sweet foods and beverages, percentage of energy
188 consumed from sweet foods and sweet foods and beverages, the weight of sugar consumed
189 from foods and from foods and beverages, and percentage of energy consumed from sugar
190 from foods and from foods and beverages. Due to the lack of agreement regarding the most
191 appropriate metric for assessing dietary sweet food intake⁽²¹⁾, several measures of intake
192 were employed.

193 *Sweet taste intensity*

194 Sweet taste intensity was assessed on each test day in the taste perception test as above.
195 For each of the six foods provided participants were also asked to rate sweet taste intensity
196 on paper and pen 100mm VAS, using the instruction '*How SWEET does this food taste to*
197 *you right now?*' (response anchors: '*not at all sweet*', '*extremely sweet*').

198 *Adherence*

199 Adherence to the intervention instructions was assessed at the end of the intervention
200 period. Participants were asked how well they adhered to their allocated diet ('*How well did*
201 *you adhere (manage to keep) to your allocated diet?*', response anchors: '*not at all*',
202 '*extremely*'), how difficult they found it to adhere to their allocated diet ('*How difficult did you*
203 *find it to adhere (manage to keep) to your allocated diet?*', response anchors: '*not at all*',
204 '*extremely*'), and how different their allocated diet was from their usual diet ('*How different*
205 *was your allocated diet from your usual diet?*', response anchors: '*not at all*', '*extremely*').
206 Responses were made using paper and pen 100 mm VAS, and were verified using records
207 of sweet food consumption over the previous day and verbal reports of difficulties over the
208 intervention week.

209 *Appetite*

210 Ratings of hunger, fullness and thirst were also undertaken using paper and pen 100 mm
211 VAS at the start of each test session to allow for differences in appetite on each test day.
212 Participant age and gender were also collected for descriptive purposes.

213

214 **Procedure**

215 The study was run from both the University of Bristol, UK (February 2018 – May 2018) and
216 from Bournemouth University (January 2023 – May 2023, October 2023 – March 2024). The

217 initial study began at the University of Bristol, and following disruptions due to COVID-19,
218 was continued later at Bournemouth University.

219 Data collection was carried out at the Nutrition and Behaviour Unit at the University of Bristol
220 and the Eating Behaviours Laboratory at Bournemouth University. Participants visited the
221 testing site fasted and rested on day 0 and day 7 during pre-booked time slots. Visits were
222 scheduled between 08:00 and 11:00 am and the timeslots remained the same on both
223 occasions. Upon arrival, participants were seated individually at a table where they were
224 presented with the taste perception test. After completing this test, participants received their
225 cold buffet-style breakfast. The entire procedure lasted approximately 30 minutes and was
226 repeated exactly on both testing occasions, with three exceptions. At the end of day 0
227 following all data collection, participants were provided with their dietary intervention. On day
228 7, participants also completed the adherence questions before the taste perception test, and
229 they were asked for any difficulties experienced over the intervention period. After their
230 breakfast, they were also debriefed about the purpose of the research, and thanked for
231 participating in the study.

232 To maintain a researcher-blinded study design, an independent researcher with no contact
233 with participants, randomised participants to one of the trial arms using a random number
234 generator. Participants were randomised at a ratio of 1 (increase): 1 (decrease) at the
235 University of Bristol, and subsequently at a ratio of 1 (increase): 1 (decrease): 1 (no change)
236 at Bournemouth University, to result in a final sample with a ratio of 2 (increase): 2
237 (decrease): 1 (no change). Group allocation was concealed using white sealed, opaque
238 envelopes, and throughout the trial the researcher in direct contact with participants
239 remained unaware of each participant's group allocation. To support the blinding,
240 participants were asked not to disclose any information about the instructions they received
241 to the researcher conducting the testing. Although it was impossible to blind the participants
242 to their group allocation, they were unaware of the true aim of the trial and the instructions
243 received by other participants.

244 Prior to commencement, the study was registered on Clinicaltrials.gov (Initial Study ID:
245 NCT03427658, registration on the 9th February 2018, Complete Study ID: NCT05672017,
246 registration on the 5th January 2023). We adhered to our trial registrations in all aspects with
247 the exception that sweet food intake was measured only at breakfast rather than at breakfast
248 and lunch as proposed in the registration for the initial study. The study was run using
249 identical interventions and measures in both locations, with the exception that in Bristol,
250 participants discussed their dietary change with a (independent) researcher and were given
251 the written instruction guide, while in Bournemouth, participants were only provided with the
252 written instruction guide, which included a contact to ask questions.

253

254 ***Analysis***

255 Data for all outcome measures were carefully processed and collated using Microsoft Excel.
256 Data from the University of Bristol and Bournemouth University were combined and
257 analysed together to enhance power. At this stage, the researcher handling the data was not
258 aware of the exposure group to which each participant had been allocated.

259 Following unblinding, data were described and analysed. Ratings for pleasantness, desire to
260 eat, and sweet taste intensity were averaged across all sweet foods and, separately across
261 all non-sweet foods tested, resulting in two scores per outcome measure, one for sweet and

262 one for non-sweet foods. These were then analysed using 3 (increase sweet food
263 consumption, decrease sweet food consumption, no diet change) x 2 (day 0, day 7) x 2
264 (sweet foods, non-sweet foods) repeated-measures ANOVAs. For the sweet food intake
265 measures, weight of sweet foods and beverages consumed, in grams, were calculated by
266 subtracting the weight of sweet foods and beverages returned to the kitchen from the
267 amount served at breakfast consequently allowing calculations of the percentage weight
268 consumed from sweet foods and beverages. Manufacturer's information was then used to
269 calculate percent energy consumed from sweet foods and beverages, weight of sugar
270 consumed and percent energy consumed from sugar. Calculations were made for foods
271 only, i.e. for the amount of food consumed in the meal regardless of beverages consumed,
272 and the percentage of this that was consumed from sweet foods, and for foods and
273 beverages together, where the percentage of sweet foods and beverages consumed was
274 calculated from total foods and beverages consumed. Intake was then analysed using 3
275 (increase sweet food consumption, decrease sweet food consumption, no diet change) x 2
276 (day 0, day 7) repeated-measures ANOVAs. Adherence and appetite were analysed using 3
277 (increase sweet food consumption, decrease sweet food consumption, no diet change) x 2
278 (day 0, day 7) repeated-measures ANOVAs. Correlations between outcomes in the taste
279 perception test and food intake measures were also conducted.

280 Analyses were undertaken on an Intention-to-Treat basis, with missing data imputed using
281 models based on gender, age, and baseline data. Regression models were also run in
282 addition to the analyses above to account for individual differences in self-reported
283 adherence to the interventions. Regression analyses were chosen rather than per-protocol
284 analyses to avoid the use of an arbitrary cut-off to determine adequate adherence / non-
285 adherence, and allowed for differences at baseline between participants and a fuller
286 exploration of the available data. These analyses sought to predict taste perceptions and
287 sweet food intake on day 7 based on group allocation, self-reported adherence, self-reported
288 difficulty, self-reported difference from usual diet, gender, age, location (Bristol,
289 Bournemouth), outcome measure on day 0 and self-reported hunger and thirst on day 7. For
290 models predicting pleasantness, desire to eat, and sweet taste intensity, a cluster regression
291 model also included clustering by ID, and inclusion of a food type predictor to allow
292 consideration of perceptions of both sweet and non-sweet foods in the same model.
293 Exploratory ANOVA analyses were also repeated, as above, to investigate differences
294 between the two intervention groups (increase sweet food consumption, decrease sweet
295 food consumption) to ensure any effects were not masked by the inclusion of the usual diet
296 control group.

297 Main analyses were conducted in SPSS (version 28.0.0.0), regression analyses were
298 conducted in Stata (version 15). Significance was set at $p = 0.05$.

299

300 **Results**

301 ***Participants***

302 One hundred and four participants were recruited in total, thirty-six participants in Bristol and
303 sixty-eight participants in Bournemouth. Forty participants were randomised to increase their
304 sweet food consumption, forty-three were randomised to decrease their sweet food
305 consumption and twenty-one were randomised to maintain their usual sweet food intake (no
306 diet change). Participant flow through the study is illustrated in Figure 1.

307

308 Figure 1 about here

309

310 Participant characteristics are given in Table 2. The three groups were comparable for
311 gender, but participants in the no diet change condition were younger than those in the other
312 two conditions. As the average age for all groups falls within the young adult category, and
313 mainstream dietary recommendations apply to adults aged 18 - 65 years, we considered
314 these differences unlikely to be relevant to our research question.

315

316 Table 2 about here

317

318 ***Adherence***

319 All 104 participants completed baseline measures, and 102 (98%) participants completed
320 testing on day 7. Two participants, both in the no diet change group, dropped out due to
321 changes in personal circumstances that were unrelated to the study. Adherence outcomes
322 across the three groups are given in Figure 2 (with data provided in the Supplementary
323 Materials Table SM3). Participants in the no diet change group reported significantly greater
324 adherence to the study instructions, greater ease in following these instructions, and less
325 deviation from their usual diet compared to participants in the increase and decrease sweet
326 food consumption groups (smallest $t(59) = 2.50, p = .02$). No significant differences in self-
327 reported adherence or in deviation from usual diet were found between the two sweet taste
328 intervention groups (largest $t(81) = 1.27, p = .21$); however, participants asked to reduce
329 their sweet food consumption reported it to be significantly more difficult to adhere to their
330 allocated diet than participants asked to increase their sweet food consumption ($t(81) = 2.45,$
331 $p = .02, M_{diff} = 14 \text{ mm}, SE = 6$). Adherence was negatively correlated with difficulty ($r = -.20,$
332 $p = 0.04$) and with deviation from usual diet ($r = -.32, p < .01$), and difficulty was positively
333 correlated with deviation from usual diet ($r = .51, p < .01$).

334

335 Figure 2 about here

336

337 ***Pleasantness and desire to eat***

338 Ratings for pleasantness and desire to eat on day 0 and day 7 are shown in Figure 3. Data
339 are given in the Supplementary Materials Table SM4.

340 *Pleasantness*

341 Sweet foods were rated as more pleasant than non-sweet foods ($F(1, 101) = 48.27, p <$
342 $.001, np^2 = .32; M_{diff} = 14 \text{ mm}, SE = 1.6$). Pleasantness ratings for all foods also decreased
343 from day 0 to day 7 ($F(1, 101) = 11.43, p = .001, np^2 = .10, M_{diff} = 4 \text{ mm}, SE = 1.4$). No
344 statistically significant dietary exposure group x time interactions (largest $F(2, 101) = 1.25, p$
345 $= .29, np^2 = .02$), or group x time x food type interactions ($F(2, 101) = 1.32, p = .27, np^2 =$
346 $.03$) were found.

347 *Desire to eat*

348 Desire to eat for sweet foods was higher than for non-sweet foods ($F(1, 101) = 24.05, p <$
349 $.001, np^2 = .19; M_{diff} = 11 \text{ mm}, SE = 1.7$), and desire to eat all foods decreased from day 0 to
350 day 7 ($F(1, 101) = 5.22, p = .02, np^2 = .05, M_{diff} = 3 \text{ mm}, SE = 1.4$). There were no
351 statistically significant dietary exposure group x time interactions (largest $F(2, 101) = 2.22, p$
352 $= .11, np^2 = .04$) or group x time x food type interactions ($F(2, 101) = 1.60, p = .21, np^2 =$
353 $.03$).

354

355 Figure 3 about here

356

357 **Sweet Food Intakes**

358 Participants consumed a mean (SD) 260 (170) g foods, 603 (278) g foods and beverages,
359 and 2334 (1483) kJ foods, 2441 (1489) kJ food and beverages at the breakfast meal, with a
360 mean (SD) 33.2 (23.1) (range 0 – 100) % food weight from sweet foods, 30.0 (16.7) (0 –
361 64.1) % food and beverage weight from sweet foods and beverages, 28.2 (20.3) (0 – 100) %
362 food energy from sweet foods, 37.2 (22.0) (0 – 100 %) % food and beverage energy from
363 sweet foods and beverages. All sweet food and beverage intake outcomes on day 0 and day
364 7 per exposure group are given in Figure 4, and in Supplementary Materials Table SM5. No
365 statistically significant effects of time were observed either in foods only or in foods and
366 beverages (largest $F(1, 101) = 2.14, p = .15, np^2 = .02$). No statistically significant dietary
367 exposure x time interactions were observed either in foods only or in foods and beverages
368 (largest $F(2, 101) = 2.53, p = .09, np^2 = .05$).

369

370 Figure 4 about here

371

372 **Sweet Taste Intensity**

373 Sweet foods were rated as sweeter than non-sweet foods ($F(1, 101) = 835.21, p < .001, np^2$
374 $= .89; M_{diff} = 48 \text{ mm}, SE = 2$), and there was a significant food type x time interaction ($F(1,$
375 $101) = 7.59, p = .007, np^2 = .07$), where non-sweet foods were rated as sweeter on day 7
376 compared to day 0 ($t(103) = 3.40, p < .01$), but there was no change in sweet taste intensity
377 for the sweet foods ($t(103) = 0.73, p = .47$). A significant dietary exposure group x time
378 interaction was also found ($F(1, 101) = 4.13, p = .02, np^2 = .08$). Participants in the decrease
379 sweet food consumption group reported all foods as more sweet on day 7 compared to day
380 0 ($t(42) = 3.36, p < .01, M_{diff} = 6 \text{ mm}, SE = 2$), but no changes were found in the other two
381 groups (largest $t(39) = .38, p = .70, M_{diff} = 1 \text{ mm}, SE = 2$). Data are pictured in Figure 5, and
382 are included in Supplementary Materials Table SM4.

383

384 Figure 5 about here

385

386 **Appetite**

387 Hunger, fullness and thirst ratings did not change over time (largest $F(1, 101) = 2.60, p =$
388 $.11, np^2 = .03$), and no statistically significant dietary exposure group x time interactions were
389 detected for any of these measures (largest $F(2, 101) = 1.27, p = .29, np^2 = .03$).

390

391 ***Associations between pleasantness, desire to eat, sweet taste intensity, and sweet***
392 ***food intakes***

393 Pleasantness and desire to eat ratings were highly positively correlated (smallest $r = .73, p <$
394 $.01$), and both pleasantness and desire to eat for all foods were correlated with rated sweet
395 taste intensity (smallest $r = .23, p = .02$). Pleasantness and desire to eating ratings for sweet
396 foods were also positively correlated with all percent sweet food intake measures (smallest r
397 $= .17, p = .02$).

398 All sweet food intake measures were correlated (smallest $r = .17, p = .01$), with the exception
399 of measures for sugar consumed from foods and from foods and beverages. Sugar
400 consumed from foods was associated with sugar consumed from foods and beverages ($r =$
401 $.45, p < .01$), percent food weight consumed from sweet foods, percent food energy
402 consumed from sweet foods and percent energy consumed from sugars from foods
403 (smallest $r = .30, p < .01$). Sugar consumed from foods and beverages was associated only
404 with percent food and beverage weight consumed from sweet food and beverages ($r = .24, p$
405 $< .01$). Neither pleasantness ratings nor desire to eat ratings were correlated with sugar
406 consumed from foods or from foods and beverages (largest $r = .10, p = .16$). Sugar
407 consumed from foods and from foods and beverages was instead associated with total
408 amount consumed both in weight and energy (smallest $r = .36, p < .01$). Total weight and
409 energy consumed were correlated ($r = .41, p < .01$). Ratings of hunger and thirst were
410 correlated ($r = .14, p = .04$). Hunger was also negatively associated with sugar consumed
411 from foods and beverages ($r = -.16, p = .02$), and thirst was negatively associated with
412 weight of foods consumed, sugars consumed from foods and from foods and beverages and
413 percent energy consumed from sugars from foods (smallest $r = .18, p = .01$). Sweet taste
414 intensity ratings were not correlated with any of the sweet taste intake measures (largest $r =$
415 $.10, p = .15$).

416

417 ***Regression Analyses***

418 The findings above from ANOVA were confirmed by the regression models. Full results from
419 all regression analyses are provided in the Supplementary Materials (Tables SM6 and SM7).
420 All taste ratings at day 7 were predicted by the regression models (smallest $F(11,103) =$
421 $15.16, p < 0.01, R^2 = .40$). Higher pleasantness and higher desire to eat ratings for all foods
422 on day 7 were associated with higher ratings for pleasantness and desire to eat respectively,
423 on day 0 (smallest $B = .562, p < .01$), and consideration of sweet vs non-sweet foods
424 (smallest $B = -5.193, p = .03$). Desire to eat was also associated with increased adherence
425 to the intervention ($B = .151, p = .02$), with a similar trend in pleasantness ratings ($B = .116,$
426 $p = .06$). No associations were found with intervention group (largest $B = -1.525, p = .25$).

427 All sweet food intake measures at day 7 were predicted by the regression models (smallest
428 $F(10, 103) = 3.65, p < .01, R^2 = .28, \text{adjusted } R^2 = .20$), and no associations with intervention
429 group were found (largest $B = 4.292, p = .06$). All intakes at day 7 were associated with the
430 same measure at day 0 (smallest $B = .311, p < .01$). The marginal effect of group was found
431 in percent food and beverage weight consumed from sweet foods and beverages ($B =$
432 $4.292, p = .06$), but effects in percent food weight consumed from sweet foods were very
433 different ($B = .492, p = .85$), and effects of intervention group in all other intake measures
434 were also small (largest $B = 1.348, p = .55$). Effects in foods and beverages but not in foods

435 only would suggest the effects of group to result from the beverage consumption (apple juice
436 and water) and the relative proportion of the beverages consumed. Considering water
437 consumption was required as part of the taste test procedure and apple juice was the only
438 other beverage available and that this may have been consumed, or not, for many reasons
439 other than its sweet taste, including flavour liking and perceptions of healthiness, we think
440 these findings more likely reflect the test situation rather than sweet food choices in the real
441 world. Percent energy consumed from sweet foods and beverages and percent energy
442 consumed from sweet foods were also negatively associated with age (smallest $B = -1.015$,
443 $p = .02$), and percent energy consumed from sugars from foods was also associated with
444 being male ($B = -3.951$, $p = .04$) and having a lower thirst ($B = -.080$, $p = .04$).

445 Higher ratings for sweet taste intensity for all foods on day 7 were associated with higher
446 ratings for sweet taste intensity on day 0 ($B = .581$, $p < .01$), consideration of the sweet
447 versus non-sweet foods ($B = -14.520$, $p < .01$) and being in the decrease sweet food
448 consumption group ($B = -3.184$, $p = .01$).

449

450 ***Exploratory Analyses***

451 Exploratory ANOVA analyses to investigate differences between the two intervention groups
452 (increase sweet food consumption, decrease sweet food consumption) without consideration
453 of the control group, are provided in the Supplementary Materials. These analyses
454 demonstrate the same effects as are reported above.

455

456 **Discussion**

457 This study investigated the effects of repeated whole-diet sweet taste exposure on the
458 subsequent pleasantness, desire for, sweet taste intensity and intake of sweet foods
459 and beverages. One-hundred-and-four participants were randomised to increase, decrease
460 or make no change to their consumption of sweet foods and beverages for a period of six
461 days, and outcomes were measured in a laboratory test day on days 0 and 7. One-hundred-
462 and-two (98%) participants completed the study, and self-reported adherence with the
463 dietary intervention was moderate to good. We found statistically significant effects of dietary
464 exposure on perceived sweet taste intensity but no effects for pleasantness, desire to eat or
465 any of the sweet food intake measures. Regression analyses taking the degree of self-
466 reported adherence into account confirmed these findings. We also found differences in self-
467 reported difficulty with adherence to the allocated diets.

468 In relation to sweet taste intensity, participants who were instructed to reduce their
469 consumption of sweet foods and beverages reported higher sweet taste intensity for the
470 study foods after the intervention compared to before. In contrast, there were minimal effects
471 on perceived sweet taste intensity for participants who increased or did not change their
472 dietary exposure to sweet taste. Our findings are consistent with other studies that report an
473 increased sweet taste intensity perception for sweet foods and/or beverages following a
474 reduction in the consumption of sweet foods and/or beverages^(9,16). Ebbeling et al.⁽⁹⁾ found
475 increased sweet taste intensity ratings for sweet solutions in those replacing sugar-
476 sweetened beverages with unsweetened beverages, while no effects were found for those
477 replacing sugar-sweetened beverages with artificially-sweetened beverages, and Wise et

478 al.⁽¹⁶⁾ found increased sweet taste intensity ratings for sweet puddings and beverages
479 following 3 months on a low-sugar compared to a usual diet. In our study, this effect is most
480 plausibly explained as a contrast effect⁽⁸⁾, where the perceived sweet taste intensity of the
481 tested items is heightened compared to the low sweet taste of the background diet.
482 Alternative mechanisms where changes in sweet taste intensity may occur, for example, as
483 a result of an increased sensitivity in sweet taste receptors⁽¹⁶⁾, seem unlikely given the short
484 nature of our intervention compared with the likely time needed to observe changes in taste
485 receptor physiology or activity⁽²²⁻²⁴⁾.

486 While effects in sweet taste intensity were found, we found little evidence for an effect of
487 dietary sweet taste exposure on ratings for pleasantness or desire to eat, or in our sweet
488 food intake measures. These findings are consistent with similar studies where sweet taste
489 exposure is modified for an extended period^(7,8). Several studies using dietary sweet taste
490 modification now report no effects on various measures of taste hedonics^(13,14,16,25), or sweet
491 food intakes^(10,13,14,26). Very short term effects of sweet taste exposure have been reported,
492 e.g. Griffioen-Roose et al.⁽¹⁵⁾ report reduced sweet food preferences and intakes immediately
493 following 24 hours consumption of a solely sweet diet, and various single exposure studies
494 report similar effects⁽²⁷⁻²⁹⁾. These effects are often explained as a result of sensory-specific
495 satiety – satiation for a specific taste as a result of prior consumption of that taste⁽³⁰⁾, but
496 importantly these effects are only found immediately or very shortly (< 2 hours) after the prior
497 taste experience⁽²⁹⁾. In studies where preference and/or testing takes place after 2 hours or
498 after an overnight fast, these sensory-specific satiety effects are not found^(10,13,14). In such
499 studies by Ebbeling et al.⁽⁹⁾ and Kendig et al.⁽¹¹⁾, some limited effects were reported in
500 preference measures, where reduced sweet taste exposure is reported to result in reduced
501 preferences for sweet solutions, and reduced liking for highly sweet solutions, respectively.
502 These studies were notably longer than the one reported here; the interventions lasting for
503 12 months⁽⁹⁾ and 12 weeks⁽¹¹⁾, thus maybe the one week duration is simply not long enough
504 for effects to develop. Other studies where sweet food items, sugar-sweetened beverages
505 specifically, have been replaced within the diet for 6 month periods also report some
506 changes in intakes of other sweet foods^(31,32), but effects are somewhat inconsistent^(7,8).
507 Studies using long interventions, e.g. a 6 month whole-diet intervention tested by Čad et
508 al.⁽³³⁾, and a 10-month intervention tested by Kjølrbæk et al.⁽³⁴⁾, will contribute significantly to
509 questions on the stability and/or flexibility of sweet taste preferences and subsequent
510 impacts on sweet food intakes.

511 Interestingly, also within our data, while we find effects of exposure in ratings of sweet taste
512 intensity and no effects in ratings of pleasantness or desire to eat, we do find positive
513 correlations between these measures. We also find positive associations between
514 pleasantness and desire to eat sweet foods and all percent sweet food intake measures,
515 although we find no associations between sweet taste intensity ratings and percent sweet
516 food intakes, and we find no associations between any of the perception measures and
517 sugar intakes. The positive association between the hedonic and intensity ratings is likely a
518 reflection of high innate preferences for sweet taste⁽³⁵⁾, and an often greater proportion of
519 sweet likers than sweet dislikers in the general population^(e.g. 36,37); an effect that was most
520 plausibly demonstrated here as a result of our use of commercially available foods in the
521 taste test, with a limited range of sweet taste intensities. Standard investigations of sweet
522 taste preferences for a range of concentrations of sweet taste often result in an inverted U-
523 shaped function around a central optimal sweet taste concentration^(e.g. 38), but these studies

524 typically use extreme (high and low) concentrations of a sweet tastant, while our effects are
525 limited to those in the central section of this range. It was the hedonic ratings however, not
526 the intensity ratings, that were associated with sweet food intake. These findings confirm an
527 independence between the sweet taste hedonic and intensity constructs⁽³⁶⁻³⁹⁾, as is also
528 shown in other studies where effects are found in one measure and not in the other^(e.g. 16).
529 Our findings also suggest that sweet food consumption is more determined by liking for the
530 sweet taste rather than by perception of high sweet taste intensity. This conclusion is also
531 reported in a recent systematic review⁽³⁹⁾, where hedonic evaluations, specifically
532 preferences and liking for sweet taste, were more predictive of dietary sweet food and
533 beverage intakes compared to perceived sweet taste intensities. Heterogeneity, however
534 was also found, due to differences in the study methods and measures used, and may
535 depend on the population studied⁽³⁹⁾. In a study population of mostly sweet likers, sweet
536 taste intensity, liking and intake will all probably be positively correlated, while in a study
537 population of mostly sweet dislikers, sweet taste intensity will probably be negatively
538 correlated with sweet taste liking, while liking and intake may remain positively associated.

539 The dissociation between the hedonic ratings, percent sweet food intakes, and the measures
540 of sugar consumed is also noteworthy. Amount of sugar consumed in fact appears to be
541 more a reflection of total consumption at the breakfast meal. These findings demonstrate the
542 value of distinguishing sweet food consumption from sugar intakes. While sweet foods are
543 likely to contain sugar, the two concepts are easily dissociated through the consumption of
544 non-sugar-sweetened (low-calorie-sweetened) sweet foods and beverages⁽⁴⁰⁾, or the
545 consumption of foods containing sugar that may not usually be classified as sweet, including
546 bread, cereal products, savoury sauces, processed snack products and ready meals^(see 41).
547 The association between sweet taste and sugar content will necessarily differ in specific
548 foods, but the absence of strong association in this study suggests that greater consideration
549 of these differences may be needed in advice aimed at reducing free sugar intakes. Many
550 public health agencies currently link sweet food consumption directly with sugar intakes, and
551 subsequently with overweight and obesity⁽⁴⁻⁶⁾. Data such as ours however demonstrate
552 inconsistent associations between sweet food consumption and sugar intakes. Systematic
553 reviews now also demonstrate limited relationships between sweet food consumption and
554 body weight, overweight or obesity, where sweet food consumption has been assessed
555 using dietary taste profiles⁽⁴²⁾ or where sweet taste versus no sweet taste is provided from
556 low-calorie-sweeteners⁽⁴³⁻⁴⁵⁾.

557 From a public health perspective, another important finding from our study is that those
558 asked to reduce their sweet food and beverage intake reported this as more difficult than
559 those asked to increase their sweet food and beverage intake or maintain their usual
560 diet. Considering the innate pleasure provided by sweet taste, at least for a majority of
561 people⁽³⁵⁻³⁷⁾, it may be unsurprising that removal or restriction of this source of pleasure will
562 be difficult. Many treat foods, even for adults, are sweet tasting⁽³⁵⁾, and suggestions that
563 such pleasures and treats should be forgone have been reported as undesirable⁽⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹⁾.
564 Strategies to reduce free sugar intakes where the sweet taste of the diet is retained may be
565 more acceptable, and more likely to achieve success, particularly over the longer term.

566 We also detected a significant reduction in pleasantness and desire to eat for all dietary
567 items in the taste test over the intervention period. As this was observed for both sweet and
568 non-sweet foods, we assume that repeated exposure to the same dietary items over the two

569 test days caused this reduction, possibly due to boredom or monotony^(50,51). This same effect
570 was found in our previous study using the same taste test and test meal⁽¹³⁾.

571 The present study provides significant contributions to the limited body of evidence regarding
572 the impact of repeated dietary sweet taste exposure on pleasantness, desire to eat, and
573 actual consumption of sweet-tasting foods and beverages. The study was of a moderately
574 large sample size and incorporated various measures of relevance to sweet food intake. Our
575 whole-diet modification approach for an extended period is a unique feature of the study,
576 making it the first to directly reflect the public health recommendations for effects on free
577 sugar intakes⁽⁴⁻⁶⁾, and test their real-world application. Importantly, participants were also
578 explicitly asked to increase or decrease their sweet food consumption, rather than their
579 consumption of specific foods or sugars, thus the study is a genuine test of exposure to a
580 taste defined as sweet by those experiencing it. Our use of a participant-centred intervention
581 and our specific methods to assess our outcomes increase the ecological validity of our
582 study. Some limitations must also be noted. First, we investigated effects at a taste test and
583 in a cold buffet-style breakfast meal. For our taste test we used three sweet and three non-
584 sweet commercially available foods, at only one (familiar) concentration of sweet taste
585 intensity. Standard sensory testing where different levels of a tastant are provided in multiple
586 versions of the same product would have extended our measurements and may have
587 resulted in increased sensitivity^(21,38). Our use of familiar food items also potentially limited
588 our chances of finding effects⁽³⁸⁾. The breakfast buffet-meal similarly may have lessened our
589 chances of detecting effects as a result of the usual unvaried nature of food choice at
590 breakfast. However, the breakfast meal provided extensive choice, and our methods allowed
591 the detection of small changes, e.g. to the amount of butter or preserve consumed. Both our
592 taste test and buffet meal were intended to assess pleasantness, desire to eat and food
593 intake in a realistic and generalisable scenario^(20,21,52). Another important limitation was that
594 participants undertook the dietary intervention in their own homes and, although we have
595 self-report measures of adherence, we have no certainty that the interventions were
596 undertaken as requested. We also have no indication of the extent to which the interventions
597 were undertaken, i.e. the degree to which participants increased or decreased their sweet
598 food intake. All participants agreed to change their diet as requested prior to signing up for
599 the study, the instructions for the intervention were clear (no questions were asked and no
600 difficulties were reported), and our aim was to mimic the everyday public health scenario, but
601 closer supervision or the provision of suitable foods for the six-day intervention period⁽³³⁾,
602 would have increased intervention fidelity and reduced these concerns. Lastly, while the
603 popular discourse in sweet food reduction recommendations is about preferences⁽⁴⁻⁶⁾, we did
604 not measure preference *per se*, using a forced choice scenario⁽²¹⁾, but instead measured
605 pleasantness and desire to eat. Subtle differences between these measures have been
606 reported^(19,21,37-39).

607 In conclusion, we found limited effects of whole-diet sweet taste exposure for six consecutive
608 days on the pleasantness, desire for, or the consumption of, other sweet-tasting foods and
609 beverages. Changes in perceived sweet taste intensity were detected, such that reduced
610 sweet taste exposure resulted in increased perceived sweet taste intensity; however, this
611 measure does not seem to be associated with the consumption of sweet-tasting foods and
612 beverages. Together with the current literature, our findings suggest that regular exposure to
613 sweet taste does not significantly affect the hedonic evaluation or intake of sweet-tasting
614 foods and beverages. These conclusions suggest that public health recommendations that

615 propose that limiting the consumption of sweet-tasting foods and beverages will reduce
616 sweet taste preferences may require revision.

617

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628

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630 ADB: None

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645

646 **Authorship**

647 ADB: Formal analysis; Investigation; Writing - original draft; Writing - review and editing;
648 PJR: Conceptualization; Methodology; Supervision; Writing – review and editing; KMA:
649 Conceptualization; Formal analysis; Methodology; Supervision; Writing – review and editing.

650

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812

813 **Table 1.** Foods served in the taste perception test and at the ad-libitum cold buffet-style
 814 breakfast.

Foods*	Taste	Texture	Taste perception test	Breakfast buffet
Apple juice	Sweet	Liquid	✓	✓
Madeline cake (plain)	Sweet	Solid	✓	✓
Tinned peaches	Sweet	Soft solid	✓	✓
Cucumber	Non-sweet	Solid	✓	✓
Medium cheddar cheese	Non-sweet	Solid	✓	✓
Greek style yogurt (plain)	Non-sweet	Soft solid	✓	✓
Honey	Sweet	Liquid		✓
Strawberry jam	Sweet	Soft solid		✓
Butter	Non-sweet	Soft solid		✓
Peanut butter	Non-sweet	Soft solid		✓
Soft cheese spread	Non-sweet	Soft solid		✓
Bread/Baguette	Non-sweet	Solid		✓
Water	Non-sweet	Liquid		✓

815 * All foods were manufactured by Sainsbury's Supermarkets Ltd., London, UK with few
 816 exceptions: Madeline cake was manufactured by Bonne Maman, Gâteaux Bonne Maman,
 817 Contres, France; strawberry jam was manufactured by Hartley's, Hain Celestial, Leeds, UK;
 818 butter was manufactured by Lurpak, Arla Foods Ltd, Leeds, UK; peanut butter was
 819 manufactured by Whole earth, Kallo Foods Ltd, Surrey, UK; soft cheese was manufactured
 820 by Philadelphia, Uxbridge, UK and bread was manufactured by KingsMill, Allied Bakeries,
 821 Maidenhead, UK.

822

823 **Table 2.** Baseline statistics for all participants in the increase sweet food consumption (*n*
 824 40), decrease sweet food consumption (*n* 43) and no diet change (*n* 21) groups.

Exposure group	Increase sweet food consumption (<i>n</i> 40)		Decrease sweet food consumption (<i>n</i> 43)		No diet change (<i>n</i> 21)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Background characteristics						
Gender	<i>Male n, %</i>		11, 27.5		13, 30.2	
	<i>Female n, %</i>		29, 72.5		30, 69.8	
Age (years)	24.1	6.4	25.3	6.7	20.6	1.5

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826

827 **Figure Legends**

828 **Figure 1.** CONSORT diagram, illustrating participant flow

829 **Figure 2.** Adherence to the allocated diet for all participants in the sweet food increase (*n*
830 40), sweet food decrease (*n* 43) and no diet change (*n* 21) exposure groups (mean and
831 standard error, letters demonstrate significant differences within each measure: a vs b vs c,
832 $p < .05$).

833 **Figure 3.** Pleasantness and desire to eat the sweet foods and non-sweet foods in the taste
834 perception test in the sweet food increase (*n* 40), sweet food decrease (*n* 43) and no diet
835 change (*n* 21) exposure groups (mean and standard error, letters demonstrate significant
836 differences: a vs b, c vs d, $p < .05$).

837 **Figure 4.** Sweet food and beverage consumption in the buffet-style breakfast meal in the
838 sweet food increase (*n* 40), sweet food decrease (*n* 43) and no diet change (*n* 21) exposure
839 groups (mean and standard error, no significant differences, $p < .05$).

840 **Figure 5.** Sweet taste intensity for the sweet foods and non-sweet foods in the taste
841 perception test in the sweet food increase (*n* 40), sweet food decrease (*n* 43) and no diet
842 change (*n* 21) exposure groups (mean and standard error, letters demonstrate significant
843 differences: a vs b, c vs d, e vs f, $p < .05$).